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Indiana State Teachers College

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THE
TEACHERS COLLEGE JOURNAL

VOLUME I JULY, 1930 NUMBER 6

Administration of Athletics in Teachers Colleges

Arthur L. Strum
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Indiana State Teachers College

The construction of stadiums in certain universities and colleges in the United States often is made by alumni who insist upon dictating certain policies with reference to athletics. When bonds are issued for the construction of the stadium, it is necessary that payments be met. Often the pressure exerted by alumni or business men concerned virtually takes from the hands of college authorities the administration of athletics.

This situation does not exist in teachers colleges. The determination of how much the policies of Indiana State Teachers College are in accord with the general practices in other teachers colleges instigated this study. It is obvious that there are many differences to be taken into account because of the traditions of the institutions, the locations of the institutions, the types of student bodies, et cetera. That is, it is clear that a teachers college located in a city and whose athletic teams were generously supported by fans in the city would have quite a different policy in the administration of athletics than a school located in a very small town situated in a sparsely populated area.

Accordingly, an inquiry was sent to one hundred teachers colleges. Fifty were sent to the presidents of institutions. The other fifty were sent to the athletic directors of the remaining number of teachers colleges.

Replies were received from thirty-five of the college presidents, seventy per cent of the number of presidents to whom the questionnaires were sent. Only twenty-four, or forty-eight per cent, of the athletic directors made reply to the inquiry. This fact seemed to indicate that the presidents of teachers colleges were more interested in the problems presented than the athletic directors.

Table I shows that in fifty-one of the fifty-nine schools freshman and varsity athletics are supported by student fees. In fifteen of the schools of the total fifty-nine, state aid is given. This fact is significant because it seems to indicate that athletics are regarded as an integral part of the curriculum.

TABLE I

HOW FRESHMAN AND VARSITY ATHLETICS ARE SUPPORTED IN THE FIFTY-NINE TEACHERS COLLEGES

Means of Support	Replies From Presidents	Replies From Athletic Directors	Total Replies
Student Fees	30	21	51
Gate Receipts	19	11	30
State Aid Appropriations	6	9	15
Merchants and Business Men	0	0	0
Combinations:			
(Student Fees (Gate Receipts (State Aid	5	3	8
(Student Fees (Gate Receipts	14	8	22
(Student Fees (State Aid	1	3	4
Student Fees Only	10	7	17
Gate Receipts Only	0	0	0
State Aid Appropriations Only	0	3	3

The responsibility for spending funds is placed directly with an athletic director in many cases, as shown in Table II, but in an almost equal number of cases, the responsibility is placed with the faculty athletic committee.

TABLE II

DIFFERENT AGENCIES IN WHICH RESPONSIBILITY FOR FUNDS SUPPORTING FRESHMAN AND VARSITY ATHLETICS IS VESTED IN FIFTY-NINE TEACHERS COLLEGES

Agencies	Replies From Presidents	Replies From Athletic Directors	Total Replies
President of School	10	5	15
Registrar or Secretary	2	3	5
Athletic Director	8	17	25
Faculty Athletic Committee	16	7	23
Combination			
(President (Athletic Director	4	2	6
(Athletic Director (Faculty Committee	3	5	8
(President (Athletic Committee	1	0	1
(President (Athletic Director (Faculty Committee	2	1	3

TABLE II (Continued)

(President (Registrar (Athletic Director	0	1	1
(President (Registrar (Athletic Director (Faculty Committee	1	0	1
(President (Registrar	1	0	1
President Only	1	2	3
Athletic Director Only	0	5	5
Registrar Only	1	1	2
Faculty Committee Only	12	2	14
Miscellaneous	4	4	8

In the majority of cases, as shown in Table III, the surplus fund secured by student fees is spent for the direct conduct and administration of athletics. The funds are spent for physical education buildings, salaries of coaches, and general school purposes in only a few cases.

TABLE III

HOW SURPLUS FUNDS FOR SUPPORT OF FRESHMAN AND VARSITY ATHLETICS ARE SPENT IN FIFTY-NINE TEACHERS COLLEGES

Spent For	Replies From Presidents	Replies From Athletic Directors	Total Replies
Physical Education Buildings	0	3	3
Salary of Coaches	2	1	3
General School Purposes	8	6	14
Director Conduct and Administration of Athletics	15	14	29
Combination: (General School Purposes (Administration of Athletics	1	0	1
(Salary of Coaches (General School Purposes	1	0	1
(Physical Education Buildings (General School Purposes (Administration of Athletics	0	2	2
(Salary of Coaches (General School Purposes (Administration of Athletics	0	1	1
General School Purposes Only	6	3	9
Administration of Athletics	13	11	24

From Table IV one sees that the athletic fees for a full year range, in most cases, between $3.00 and $5.00. In three cases the fee is between $15.00 and $17.00, while in a few cases it is less than $2.00, but in the majority of cases it is considerably greater than $3.00.

TABLE IV

AMOUNTS PAID FOR ATHLETIC FEES IN FIFTY-NINE TEACHERS COLLEGES

Amounts	Replies From Presidents	Replies From Athletic Directors	Total Replies
$ 0.00 - $ 2.00	3	8	11
$ 3.00 - $ 5.00	11	11	22
$ 6.00 - $ 8.00	6	1	7
$ 9.00 - $11.00	2	0	2
$12.00 - $14.00	2	1	3
$15.00 - $17.00	2	1	3
More than $17.00	0	0	0

TABLE V

WHAT PER CENT ATHLETIC FEE IS OF GENERAL FEE IN FIFTY-NINE TEACHERS COLLEGES

Per Cent	Replies From Presidents	Replies From Athletic Directors	Total Replies
0 - 4	0	3	3
5 - 9	5	3	8
10 - 14	2	3	5
15 - 19	3	1	4
20 - 24	2	1	3
25 - 29	1	2	3
30 - 34	3	1	4
Over 35	8	1	9

The most significant fact noted in Table V is that the athletic fee in many cases is more than thirty-five per cent of the general fee.

The results of this study indicate rather clearly the general policies which are followed in teachers colleges. Whether these policies are progressive and forward-looking or not, it is impossible to determine. The philosophy of education today seems to indicate that athletics should play a definite part in the general scheme of education.

A number of the institutions have state support. The responsibility for spending funds is placed often with the athletic director, but in almost an equal number of cases, the faculty athletic committee has this responsibility. In the majority of cases, the surplus funds secured by student fees must be spent for the direct conduct and administration of athletics. The athletic fees for the full year are in the majority of cases considerably greater than $3.00 and in a considerable number of cases the athletic fee is greater than thirty-five per cent of the general fee.

The objectives of physical education generally sought are health, citizenship training, and worthy use of leisure time. State aid for physical education has generally been slow; student fees and gate receipts have borne the burden of support. Depending upon gate receipts from the public makes the attainment of objectives more difficult especially if there is control from forces outside the institution. Athletics need more direction by educators and less direction by outsiders.

Achievements in Skills Taught in Physical Education 51 (Gymnasium Work) at Indiana State Teachers College

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For years the rule of the "three R's" was considered sufficient learning for most men. As society grew—expanding, becoming richer, having greater facilities, such as improved living conditions and many more conveniences—there was a trend upward for the better things of life.

Education, as one factor in the life of society, was carried along with this upward movement. From time to time education has changed and broadened to meet the changing conditions of the social order.

This condition, true of education in general, is equally true of its special forms, particularly is this so of physical education. Since primitive man taught his son the art of throwing, running, jumping, and the other fundamental skills necessary in life, there have been changes made in the subject matter and in the methods of teaching in the field of education.

It is not the intent of this study to give a history of education, nor one of physical education. Mention is made of a few of the outstanding steps in the development of physical education. This is in order to show that it has undergone many changes in arriving at a time where the contents of tests, such as are described in this study, have a place in our present day program of physical education and that this place is justified.

A review of the development of physical education starts with the Greeks and their artistic attitude toward play, love of form, beauty, exactness of execution, and the religious ideals contained in their sports. The Romans, in contrast to the Greeks, held more of a military attitude toward play, making their physical education serve for political reasons, building strong men for military service. In Germany, Father Jahn taught and practiced physical education of a heavy apparatus type for the purpose of building strong men. Ling, in Sweden, had very much the same purpose in the physical education he advocated, yet he was more scientific. Outdoor games and sports were predominant in England.

When the United States reached the stage in its social and educational development that the need of some kind of physical education was felt, the experiences and systems of the European countries influenced its leaders in this movement. In these systems which had been tried out, there were many points of worth, but all seemed to make physical education an end in itself, rather than a means to an end. Instead of giving the needs, the likes, and the dislikes of children any consideration, the children were fitted to an uninteresting program. When they were left to themselves they evolved an altogether different type of activity. This lack of consideration was due, perhaps, to men not understanding the value and need of physical education in the life of the individual.

Not until recently has physical education been given a definite place in the curricula of the schools of this country, nor was it considered any more than a system of play. Physical education has developed, however, at a rapid rate. It is now a part of the curricula in almost all of the schools; it occupies a dignified place on the school program; its instructors employ the modern educational methods in presenting its contents to their classes.

In physical education, the psychology of learning can be applied as well as in any subject, as shown by Dr. J. F. Williams in his "Principles of Physical Education." If men do not learn fundamental skills in

physical education, then the instructors are not teaching. In physical education the men like to do what they can do well. The mere going through an activity does not insure its being learned. Laws of learning, use, disuse, and effect are found as effective in physical education as in general education.

Physical education classes at Indiana State Teachers College recently have been conducted, in the light of past history and the new ideals and ideas that have been developed in the subject, along the "new physical education" way. This "new way" was tried out in Physical Education 51 (Gymnasium Work) during the Winter Term, 1930, by the use of achievement tests. The purpose of this study is to show the methods and results of these tests in certain skills.

Physical Education 51 is required of all men students. In these classes the members of the department try to make the class period one of teaching—teaching in which men are taught some of the fundamental skills which it is hoped will have a carry over value in their after life.

At the beginning of the Winter Term, 1930, five sport activities were chosen—handball, volley ball, basketball, baseball, and indoor baseball. An initial motor test was given the men in each of the activities, also a knowledge test on rules, regulations, dimensions of floors, et cetera. During the term the men received instruction, practice, and game participation in these five chosen activities.

The entire class was divided into squads of eight men—each squad playing and practicing handball one day each week. The squad which played on Monday played on Monday each week; the squad which played on Tuesday played on Tuesday each week; and so on for each day of the week. Each day the rest of the class worked together as a unit in one of the other activities. These activities were rotated and came on different days each week in order that the squads playing handball would be given the opportunity to play and practice the other activities. One week the schedule for the class might be as follows:

Monday—Basketball
Tuesday—Volley Ball
Thursday—Baseball
Friday—General practice.

For the next week, the class schedule would be:

Monday—Volley ball
Tuesday—Baseball
Thursday—General practice
Friday—Basketball.

Thus each squad had a chance to take part in all of the activities, whereas, if there had been no rotation, each squad would not have participated in one activitiy, the one which came on the day the squad practiced handball.

The problem was to determine the achievement in certain skills as taught in Physical Education 51 during the Winter Term, 1930. The following discussion considers each motor activity separately, taking up the method of procedure and the results.

The determination of achievement was made in each case by giving an initial test in the subject during the first week of the term and by giving an achievement test in the same subject at the end of the term, twelve weeks later. Fifty-one were in the class— each one taking every test.

Foul goal shooting in basketball was the first activity tested. The equipment used was an official basketball. Each man was given ten trials from the free throw line. The average on the initial test was three and seven-tenths goals out of every ten trials, while on the achievement test at the end of the term the average was five and three-tenths goals. There was an increase of forty-three per cent. Seven students made no change in the number of shots out of ten, thirty-nine increased their number, and five decreased their number.

Table I compares the results of the two tests of foul goal shooting.

TABLE I

A COMPARISON OF THE RESULTS OF THE TWO TESTS GIVEN IN FOUL GOAL SHOOTING IN BASKETBALL

Tests	Number of Trials										
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Initial	3	1	4	14	12	11	5	0	0	0	0
Achievement	0	1	1	3	11	14	8	7	4	2	0

For the second activity, the basketball long shot, an official basketball was used. As before, each man was given ten trials.

This time it was at a distance of twenty-two feet from the basket. The average on the initial test was two and eight-tenths goals and on the achievement test, three and five-tenths goals. The per cent of increase was twenty-five. Four men made no change in their number of shots, thirty increased their number, and seventeen decreased their number.

Table II shows the results of both tests in basketball long shots.

TABLE II

A COMPARISON OF THE RESULTS OF THE TWO TESTS GIVEN IN BASKETBALL LONG SHOTS

Tests	Number of Trials										
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Initial	5	10	11	9	9	5	4	0	0	0	0
Achievement	1	6	9	9	14	5	4	3	0	0	0

Basketball short shots per minute was the next activity tested. An official basketball was used . Each man stood at the foul line with the ball. At the command "Go," he shot at the basket and continued for one minute, taking short shots under the basket. Because this test contained the time element, the results varied. No table is given, therefore, only a general summary.

Only four of the fifty-one men taking the test made less on the achievement test than on the initial test. The other forty-seven showed a decided increase. The smallest increase by any one individual was one, and the greatest was seventeen. On the initial test there was an average of eleven and five tenths goals per minute. The average on the achievement test was sixteen and eight-hundredths goals per minute. This was an increase of forty-eight and five-tenths per cent.

Equipment for the next activity tested, the volley ball serve, consisted of an official volley ball, net, and standards. Each man stood at the back of the line and was given ten trials in serving the ball over the net into the playing space. In the initial test, seven and ninety-five hundredths serves out of ten trials was the average. The average in the achievement test was eight and eighty-six hundredths serves. The per cent of increase was eleven and five-tenths. Nine men made no change in their serves, thirty-six increased their number, and six decreased their number.

The data for this test are shown in Table III.

TABLE III

A COMPARISON OF THE RESULTS ON THE TWO TESTS GIVEN IN THE VOLLEY BALL SERVE

Tests	Number of Trials										
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Initial	0	0	0	0	1	2	4	13	14	8	9
Achievement	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	2	9	21	16

For the next test, that of the handball serve, a four wall handball court, a regulation ball, and gloves were necessary. The first procedure in this test was to stand each man in the service lane and have him serve from the front wall only, serving ten times. On the one wall serve, there was an average of six and eight-tenths serves out of every ten on the initial test. On the achievement test, the average was nine. This was a thirty-two per cent increase. Eight men made no change in their number of serves, thirty-nine increased their number, and four decreased their number.

The data for this test are shown in Table IV.

TABLE IV

A COMPARISON OF THE RESULTS ON THE TWO TESTS IN THE FRONT WALL HANDBALL SERVE

Tests	Number of Trials										
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Initial	0	1	0	4	3	6	3	13	10	8	3
Achievement	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	6	4	17	22

Two walls, the front and one side, were used in the handball serve for the second procedure. The average on the initial test was five and forty-three hundredths serves; on the achievement test it was seven and eighty-three hundredths serves. This was an increase of forty-four per cent of the number of serves out of ten. Four men made no change in their number of serves, forty-one increased their number, and six decreased their number.

The results of the two wall serve test are shown in Table V.

TABLE V

A COMPARISON OF THE RESULTS ON THE TWO TESTS GIVEN IN THE FRONT AND SIDE WALL HANDBALL SERVE

Tests	Number of Trials										
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Initial	2	1	1	5	9	10	9	10	3	1	0
Achievement	0	1	0	0	1	1	7	18	13	12	7

Handball was a game which was new to most of the class. Taken as a unit, the class showed a decided preference for this activity.

The indoor baseball toss was tested next. For this test a suspended mat, with a target eighteen by forty inches marked on it, was used. The bottom of the target was twenty inches from the floor. The other equipment was a regular fourteen-inch indoor ball. The individual standing thirty feet from the target, delivered the ball at the target by an underhand toss, at the same time taking one step forward, keeping the rear foot in contact with the floor. Five and seven-tenths tosses out of ten was the average on the initial test. Eight and twenty-five hundredths was the average on the achievement test. The per cent of increase was forty-five. Three men made no change in the number of tosses, forty-four increased their number, and four decreased their number.

Table VI compares the results of the initial test and of the achievement test on the indoor baseball toss.

TABLE VI

A COMPARISON OF THE RESULTS ON THE TWO TESTS GIVEN IN THE INDOOR BASEBALL TOSS

Tests	Number of Trials										
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Initial	0	2	2	3	7	10	9	9	7	4	0
Achievement	0	0	0	1	2	1	1	9	14	9	14

The equipment for the baseball throw was the same as for the indoor baseball toss except that a regular baseball was used. The individual stood sixty feet and six inches from the target. He was permitted to throw overhand. On the initial test the average number of throws was two and nine-tenths throws out of ten. The average on the achievement test was four and one-tenth throws. This was an increase of forty-one per cent. Eight men made no change in their number of throws, thirty-two increased their number, and eleven decreased their number.

The data for the tests given in the baseball throw are shown in Table VII.

TABLE VII

A COMPARISON OF THE RESULTS ON THE TWO TESTS GIVEN IN THE BASEBALL THROW

Tests	Number of Trials										
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Initial	4	9	10	11	9	5	4	0	1	0	0
Achievement	2	3	8	7	10	6	9	4	2	0	0

Forty true and false questions, covering rules, measurements, and physical education activities, made up the knowledge test given at the beginning of the term. No special effort was made during the term to teach these rules and general information except as they came up in the actual participation of these activities. The average score on the initial test was fifteen and five-tenths questions answered correctly. On the achievement test the average was twenty-five and five-tenths questions answered correctly. The per cent of increase was sixty-five.

Among the most significant figures of the tests, the averages on each test—initial and achievement—for each activity, and the per cent of increase in each activity stand out. These data are shown in Table VIII.

General Summary

The conditions under which these tests were given were as nearly ideal as can be had in a regular gymnasium class. An individual record sheet was kept showing what each man did on each test in each activity. Some of the outstanding results which this record sheet shows are:

Foul Goals. The lowest score made on the initial test was zero. The individual who made this score had never played basketball. He made six out of ten trials on the achievement test. The highest score made on the initial test was six. The same individuals who made the high score on the first test made nine on the achievement test. These individuals had been members of high school basketball teams.

Long Shots. The lowest score on the initial test was zero; on the achievement

TABLE VIII

A COMPARISON OF THE AVERAGES ON THE INITIAL TESTS, THE AVERAGES ON THE ACHIEVEMENT TESTS, AND THE PER CENTS OF INCREASE

Tests	Averages On		Per Cent of Increase
	Initial Test	Achievement Test	
Foul Goal Shooting	3.7	5.3	43
Basketball Long Shots	2.8	3.5	25
Basketball Short Shots	11.5	16.08	48.5
Volley Ball Serve	7.95	8.86	11.5
Handball Serve—Front Wall	6.8	9.	32
Handball Serve—Two Walls	5.43	7.83	44
Indoor Baseball Toss	5.7	8.25	45
Baseball Throw	2.9	4.1	41
Knowledge Test—True-False	15.5	25.5	65

test the lowest score was five. The highest scores on the initial test were made by two individuals. Their score was six. One made seven on the achievement test and the other made only two. The one who made the highest score on the second test was a former basketball man.

Shots Per minute. The greatest number of shots made per minute on the initial test was twenty-four. The same man who made this high number on the initial test made twenty-five on the achievement test. He was a high school basketball man. Five was the smallest number made per minute on the first test. This was increased to twenty-two on the achievement test.

Volley Ball Serve. On the initial test the lowest score was four. The same individual made nine on the achievement test. This student is a former Boy Scout and learns readily. Two men had perfect scores on both tests. Both are college athletes.

Handball Serve—One Wall. An individual to whom the game was new had the lowest score, one, on the initial test. His score on the second test was nine. A good athlete made the perfect score on both tests.

Handball Serve—Two Walls. The lowest score on this initial test was zero. The score made by the same individual on the achievement test was nine. Only one person made ten on both tests although several made the perfect score on the achievement test.

Indoor Baseball Toss. The lowest initial score was four. The man who made this score made ten on the achievement test. The highest score on the initial test was nine. Ten was the same individual's score on the achievement test. Twelve men made perfect scores on their achievement test.

Baseball Throw. But one individual made the lowest score on the initial test —zero; he made one on the achievement test. Another individual made two on the initial test and zero on the achievement test. Two individuals made the highest score on the initial test—six. One made seven and the other made four on the achievement test.

Knowledge Test. Only two made less on the achievement test than on the initial test. All the rest, except one, increased their scores.

The results as shown by the tables and general summary are such as to seem to warrant the statement that modern educational methods can be used in physical education with distinct advantage to the class and instructor. Such practices will enable instructors in physical education to set up tentative standards in each of the motor activities.

Embarrassments for the Professor

J. R. Shannon
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John, a six-year-old boy in the first grade, brought home from school one winter evening an attractive little supplementary reader from the school library. John's father, a Ph. D. on a college faculty glanced through the book to see the kind of literature to which his son was being exposed. In going through the book the professor found two words he had never met before. The words were truffle and hob. In his mixed emotion, consisting of chagrin, disgust, and rage, the doctor recalled the word troll, which he had met in a similar manner when John's older brother had brought home a primary reader some three years before.

Partly because misery loves companionship, but chiefly for other reasons, the embarrassed professor decided to compare his ignorance to that of the other doctors on the faculty. The next day he approached each of the other fourteen doctors with the three words. He told them how he had met the words and why he was conducting the investigation. He was generous with his colleagues, and accepted any definition that was even remotely correct. Also, he accepted as correct a fellow professor's knowledge of a word if he used it correctly in a sentence. The results of the survey are shown in the accompanying table.

TABLE I

SHOWING THE PROFESSORS, THE UNIVERSITIES FROM WHICH THEY RECEIVED THEIR DEGREES, THE DEPARTMENT OF THE COLLEGE IN WHICH THEY TEACH, AND HOW MANY KNEW THE THREE WORDS IN QUESTION

Doctor	University From Which Doctorate Was Received	Department of College in Which Teaching	Words Known		
			Truffle	Hob	Troll
A__	Johns Hopkins	French	x	x	x
B__	Yale	English	x	x	x
C__	Johns Hopkins	Biology	x	x	x
D__	Indiana	English	x	____	x
E__	Wisconsin	Sociology	_____	x	x
F__	Johns Hopkins	Biology	x	____	____
G__	Johns Hopkins	Biology	x	____	____
H__	Iowa	Education	_____	____	x
I__	Clark	Psychology	_____	____	____
J__	Indiana	History	_____	____	____
K__	Indiana	Education	_____	____	____
L__	Wisconsin	Geology	_____	____	____
M__	Yale	English	_____	____	____
N__	Indiana	Education	_____	____	____
O__	Michigan	Mathematics	_____	____	____

Three doctors knew all the words, two knew two of them, three knew only one of them, and seven knew none.

The professor who made the investigation felt relieved when he found he was in the mode, but he still has some perplexities in regard to the matter.

The Status of Geography in the State Teachers Colleges of the United States

Floyd F. Cunningham
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Introduction

Present trends in curriculum making in school systems of the United States and increasing emphasis that is being placed upon geography as one of the major entities of both college and university curricula challenges the attention of both students and administrators.

The purpose of this investigation is to determine the present status of geography in state teachers colleges of the United States. It is hoped that from this study generalizations may be deduced which will aid those interested in organizing courses for teachers colleges. Such analyses as herewith presented should serve as a basis of comparison for future studies which may be carried on from time to time.

This study is based almost wholly on data obtained from catalogues of the various state teachers colleges. So far as possible, catalogues containing information for 1929-1930 were used, although in a few instances those containing information for 1928-1929 were used. Personal letters requesting data relative to geography courses and to the training of geography teachers were directed to presidents of all colleges whose catalogues did not contain the desired information.

In order to define clearly what is meant by a state teachers college I have used the definition as set forth by the Association of American Teachers Colleges. A state teachers college, as defined by this Association, is "a state institution which has at least one four-year unified curriculum; which is devoted exclusively to the preparation of teachers; which has legal authority to grant a standard bachelor's degree; which has granted and continues to grant such degrees; and which requires for admission the completion of a standard four-year secondary school curriculum, or equivalent training approved by this Association." I have not included independent units of recognized colleges and universities devoted exclusively to the training of teachers even though they receive state aid.

Eight of the state teachers colleges grant the master's degree in education, but only two of these at present offer graduate work in geography.

This survey covers more than eighty-five per cent of all the state teachers colleges of the United States.

Nine hundred and ninety-four courses in geography and related courses generally catalogued in the geography department were examined and classified under various headings. The descriptions as well as the titles of the courses were used as a basis of classification. The number of courses offered by any one college varies from none to twenty-two, the average being seven and three-tenths courses for each college.

Method Courses

The method courses still predominate even though there is a definite tendency toward professionalization of content.

Method courses comprise twelve and three-tenths per cent of the total number of courses examined. Sixty-seven per cent of the colleges offer one or more courses in method. Many of these courses, however, might better be designated as method-content courses.

The method courses are classified under five headings. First, Methods in Geography include courses in general and special methods without reference to any particular grade. Second, Lower Grade Methods include also courses entitled Primary Methods. Third and fourth, Upper Grade Methods and Junior High School Methods, respectively, have been classified separate-

ly. This separate consideration seems warranted in view of the present trends in junior high school organization even though courses in these subjects deal with similar material. Courses listed as Junior High School Methods and Senior High School Methods are definitely classified as such. Some courses are a combination of Lower and Upper Grade Methods (including Rural School Methods.) Other courses are a combination of Junior and Senior High School Methods. Of the one hundred twenty-two method courses, forty-three are classified as General Methods, twenty as Lower Grade Methods, twelve as Upper Grade Methods, four as Junior High School Methods. Only one college offers a course in Senior High School Methods. Thirty-one of the courses are classified as grade methods without reference to any particular grade. Two are classified as Upper Grade-Junior High School Methods and nine are classified as High School Methods.

In a few colleges only method courses are given. In many cases these are given by members of the education, psychology, or history departments.

Content Courses

Ten and five-tenths per cent of all the courses examined are classified under the heading Economic Geography (including courses entitled Industrial Geography and Commercial Geography.) Seventy-seven per cent of the colleges offer one or more courses belonging to this group.

Nine and six-tenths per cent of all the courses are classified under the heading Principles of Geography. This category includes courses listed as Elements of Geography, Fundamentals of Geography, Introduction to Geography, General Geography, College Geography, and Principles of Human Geography. Highly specialized courses entitled Anthropogeography or Influences of the Geographic Environment were not included. Seventy-three per cent of all the state teachers colleges offer one or more courses that belong to this group and which may be termed the first course in geography or at least may be called an introductory course. One has to read only a few catalogue descriptions to see that there is a great variance as to what this first course should include.

Of the courses treating definitely the study of a single continent seven per cent of the total are classified as a study of North America, five and seven-tenths per cent as a study of Europe, and five and one-tenth per cent as a study of South America. Sixty-one per cent of all the state teachers colleges are offering one or more courses in the Geography of North America. However, when one considers the number of content-method courses and the number of courses entitled General Regional Geography that give some treatment to North America then the per cent really becomes larger than s i x t y - o n e. Forty-five per cent of the colleges offer courses relating to South America. This does not include content-method courses, courses listed as Geography of Latin America, nor does it include combination regional courses such as Geography of North America and South America or Geography of Europe and South America, et cetera. Fifty-nine per cent of the colleges offer courses in Geography of Europe. Again this number includes those courses that treat of Europe only and does not include combination courses.

Sixteen colleges offer courses in the Geography of Asia; five offer courses in the Geography of Africa; and only one offers a course in the Geography of Australia.

Forty-five per cent of the state teachers colleges offer courses in Geographic Influences in American History; twenty-eight per cent offer courses in Political Geography. These courses are certainly desirable for teachers who are to teach in either the elementary or secondary schools.

It is significant that twenty-seven per cent of the teachers colleges offer one or more courses in the Geography of the Home State.

Field Geography is rapidly developing in the state teachers colleges. These vary from local field courses to field courses of four weeks' duration covering from two to four thousand miles of travel. Fourteen per cent of the state teachers colleges offer one or more courses in field geography. A majority of these courses are offered during the summer quarter.

Fifty-four per cent of the state teachers colleges offer one or more courses in Physiography.

Forty-two per cent of the state teachers colleges offer one or more courses in Weather and Climate (including courses listed as Climate and Man, Meteorology, Climatology, and Climates of the Continents.)

Twenty-one per cent of the colleges offer a course in the Conservation of Natural Resources.

A great number of miscellaneous courses are offered in addition to those mentioned.

Training of Geography Teachers

An investigation concerning the training of teachers and the schools where the teachers are trained is coming to be significant in all education surveys.

What is the training of the geography teachers of the state teachers colleges, and where have they been trained? Fifteen hold the doctors degree, one hundred six the masters degree, and fifty-two hold only the bachelors degree. The pressure brought to bear by the Association of American Teachers Colleges in regard to minimum requirements of faculty members has resulted in a rapid rise in the standards of geography teachers. It is a significant fact that year after year the faculty additions to the geography departments are largely teachers who have been trained in the field of geography. This is, indeed, a hopeful sign.

The following table shows the per cent of the total bachelors, masters, and doctors degrees, respectively, conferred by twelve institutions. Any institution granting at least five degrees is included in this tabulation. It is quite evident that not all of these degrees were granted in the field of geography as some institutions receive credit for a doctorate degree which do not grant a doctorate in geography and which do not even have a graduate department of geography.

Conclusion

In conclusion I wish to state that the importance of geography is recognized in most of the teachers colleges of the United States. There appears to be three classes of state teachers colleges relative to geography. First, there are those colleges (only a few) that offer no courses in geography, yet these colleges purport to train teachers to teach in the elementary schools of the state. Second, there is the group of colleges that offer a few courses in geography in order to train teachers who can teach geography along with other subjects, and third, there are those colleges offering many courses that not only train students to teach geography, but also train special geography teachers.

There is no uniformity as to what courses should be required, no uniformity in regard to title and description of courses, and no uniformity in regard to sequence of courses.

The study reveals a definite tendency toward fewer method courses and more professionalized content courses.

A great number of geography courses offered and a strong geography faculty is held to constitute a strong presumption that geography teachers of superior quality are being turned out by some state teachers colleges.

TABLE I
PER CENT OF THE TOTAL BACHELORS, MASTERS, AND DOCTORS DEGREES GRANTED IN GEOGRAPHY

Institution	Bachelors	Masters	Doctors
Clark University	.6	10.4	40.
Columbia University	3.4	11.2	
Illinois State Normal University	8.6		
Indiana University	2.3	2.6	6.6
George Peabody College for Teachers	10.9	12.1	6.6
Harvard University	2.3	3.4	
University of California	1.7	1.7	
University of Chicago	11.5	27.	13.
University of Iowa	2.3	.8	6.6
University of Michigan	5.7	4.4	
University of Nebraska	2.3	5.2	
University of Wisconsin	4.	6.9	6.6
Total	56.5	85.7	67.4

It is interesting to note that many regard geography as purely a physical science,

(Continued On Page 182)

TEACHERS COLLEGE JOURNAL

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This issue of The Teachers College Journal completes Volume I. The Journal will be continued this next year with certain modifications which are deemed advisable after a survey of the first year. While the Journal's policy of discussing problems of primary interest to those engaged in the training of teachers will be continued, it will be extended to include problems bearing on the in service training of teachers. It is hoped that this new policy will make the Journal of value to the teaching personnel as well as to the administrative personnel.

Accompanying this issue is the index for Volume I. It has been compiled according to author, subject matter, and title.

Below are listed the students to whom the Master's Degree in Education was granted in June, 1930, by the Indiana State Teachers College, and the titles of their theses.

Arnold, Grace. Some Aspects of the Problem Child in The Terre Haute Public Schools.

Bramblet, Ransom. A Correlation between the Scholastic Record of Graduates of Indiana State Teachers College and Their Yearly Financial Success after Graduation.

Bright, Harold. A Personnel Study of the Teachers of Clark County, Illinois.

Brill, Goldie V. The Problem of Extra-Curricular Activities in the High School.

English, Zoe L. A Course of Study for Mathematics in the Junior High School.

Fisher, W. Edward. Comparison of the Professional Success of Members and Non-Members of the Men's Societies in the Indiana State Teachers College, 1910-1926.

McClain, Ruby (with Ruth Krausbeck of 1929). Comparison of the Professional Success of Sorority versus Non-Sorority Members of Indiana State Teachers College.

Phillips, Lewis R. The General Status of the Financial Control of Athletics in the High Schools of Indiana.

Phillips, Mabel G. A Case Study of the Monotone Problem in the Junior High School.

Rogers, Katharine U. Curriculum in Music for Junior High School.

Smith, Silas A. A Study to Determine the Values of the Various Subjects Included in the High School Curriculum.

Stiffler, Dale. The Status of County Superintendents in the State of Kentucky from the Standpoint of the County Unit.

Watt, Ben H. A Study of the Legal Background for a State Supported School System in Indiana.

The students whose names are listed above made up the second class to be granted the Master's Degree in Education by the Indiana State Teachers College. The first class numbered five and received their degrees in 1929.

During the First Summer Term that the Graduate School of the Indiana State Teachers College was open there were seventy-five students enrolled. The second year, the enrollment for the First Summer Term was one hundred and twenty-five students. This year, the third, the enrollment has been one-hundred and seventy-five students.

The Use of Measurement in Evaluating Achievement in Education Classes

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Tests are tools which are essential to the improvement of instruction. Advantages and limitations of these tools have been pointed out by Ruch[1]. According to Manuel[2] the time worn essay test is far from being abandoned by members of the National Society of College Teachers of Education. He points out that in addition to the traditional type of essay examination many instructors use the "open-book" test and that others base their examinations on questions previously given to the students. However, he shows that there is a marked preference for the "new-type" test which in most instances is composed of (1) true-false items, (2) completion items, (3) multiple-choice items, (4) organization items, (5) completion tests, and (6) tests calling for an estimation of the degree of truth of statements. It is evident from the study made by Manuel that standardized tests are used to judge the ability or preparation of students and to test the results of instruction. Unfortunately, few standardized tests are available for use in the field of psychology and education. Woody[3] has briefly described these as follows:

"Achievement Test in Psychology," by L. A. Averill and A. D. Mueller. Chicago: C. H. Stoelting Co., 1925.

Forms and years: Form I in twelve sections, for introductory courses in college and normal school.

Time: Two to two and one-half hours.

Description: based on text and reference books used in an introductory course in psychology in nearly fifty representative higher institutions of learning. Divided into twelve sections covering the field of general psychology. Each section perforated so that it may be used separately.

"The College Psychology Test," by J. E. Bathurst and Norma V. Scheidemann. Washington, D. C.: J .E. Bathurst, Bureau of Public Personnel Administration, Mills Building, 1928.

Forms and years: Two forms, for college.

Description: Designed to test achievement in a first-year college psychology course. Covers psychological and neurological psychology, abnormal psychology, animal and child psychology, social and applied psychology, systematic psychology, and experimental psychology.

Coefficient of reliability: .80 plus or minus 0.034.

"Tests for Woodworth's Psychology," by N. V. Scheidemann and J. E. Bathurst. Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Public Personnel Administration, Mills Building, 1928.

Forms and years: One form, for college or university.

Description: Designed to measure achievement for each of the twenty-one chapters of Woodworth's Psychology. Questions of true-false and multiple-choice forms.

Coefficient of reliability: 0.80.

"Brueckner Judgment Test of Teaching Skill," by Leo J. Brueckner. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Educational Test Bureau, University and 15th Avenue, 1926.

Forms and years: One form of four tests, for college.

Time: Twenty minutes for each set.

Description: Consists of four tests on which the student judges which of the following types of teacher is best and why: compulsion type, preparation type, motivation type, and purposing type.

Coefficient of reliability: From 0.80 to 0.90.

"Standardized Examination on an Introduction to Education," by G. W. Frasier and W. D. Armentrout. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 623-633 South Wabash Avenue, 1924; 1927.

Forms and years: Forms A and B, for college classes in education.

Description: An achievement test to be given after the class has completed the text "An Introduction to Education." Test

[1]Ruch, G. M., The Objective or New Type Examination.

[2]Yearbook No. XVIII. "Quantitative Measurement in Institutions of Higher Learning." National Society of College Teachers of Education.

[3]Ibid. Pp. 48-49.

has been standardized and standards may be obtained from author.

"Odell Principles of Teaching Secondary Schools Test," by C. W. Odell and M. E. Herriott. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1926.

Forms and years: Forms 1 and 2, for college instructors, city superintendents, and principals in teacher-training schools.

Time: Twenty-five minutes.

Description: Test I tests knowledge of certain words and phrases used in teaching; Test II is a multiple-choice type; Test III has certain words or expressions to be corrected; Test IV is a sentence completion test.

"Odell-Herriott Test on Principles of Teaching in Secondary Schools," by C. W. Odell and M. E. Herriott. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1928.

Forms and years: Forms 1 and 2, for college and normal school.

Time: Twenty-five minutes.

Description: Form 2 is a group test for use by college instructors and city superintendents and principals in the selection, training, and guidance of high-school teachers.

"Weber Secondary Education Aims Test," by Joseph H. Weber. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1925.

Forms and years: Form A, for college instructors, city superintendents, and principals in teacher-training schools.

Description: Designed to measure the teacher's functioning knowledge of the principal reasons why society has established the public secondary school and why it maintains this institution. Covers goals, objectives, and service.

Coefficient of reliability: 0.90.

Supplementing these measures of specific ability Manuel has shown that intelligence tests, reading tests, English tests, and tests of various elementary school subjects are used by members of the National Society of College Teachers of Education as a basis for judging the preparation of their students and adapting instruction to their needs. It is shown by this study that other evidences of individual needs and effectiveness of teaching such as (1) questionnaires on personal data and experience; (2) individual projects; (3) self-instructional materials; (4) performance in practice teaching; (5) information from the dean concerning the reactions of students to the course; (6) records in other courses; and (7) inventory tests are frequently used by instructors in the improvement of instruction.

Measurements are essential in the evaluation of results of instruction. Reeves and Russell[4] have summarized the current efforts to evaluate student worth as follows:

a. There is a general feeling of dissatisfaction with the marking system currently used in colleges and universities.

b. The suggestion that distribution of marks should conform to the normal curve, while in some cases reported satisfactory, is not always a complete solution to the problem.

c. The percentile marking system is promising though its use is not wide spread.

d. The most promising plan is the use of objective tests although these have had a limited development.

e. The value of the comprehensive examination is that it tends to change the emphasis from the passing of a specific course to the mastery of a subject.

Nolan[5] has shown by a study made at the University of Illinois that in the estimation of achievement instructors (1) base marks upon frequent ten-minute quizzes, a few hour examinations, and the final examination; (2) weight questions in the examination with numerical values as an aid in estimating final marks; (3) base marks upon personal opinion and daily class work; (4)use notebooks and laboratory notes as a basis for marking whenever possible; (5) outline several factors that determine final estimate of marks and let the students know what these factors are; (6) read all the answers to a single question when marking quiz papers; (7) use the "new examination" type frequently. It is evident that the system of measurement of achievement and the system of marking are closely related and that what is most needed is experimentation in methods of examining students. Toops[6] has listed forty methods of giving college examinations, several of which are listed as follows:

[4]Reeves, Floyd W., and Russell, John Dale. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service. December, 1928. "Some Aspects of Current Effort to Improve College Instruction."

[5]Nolan, Aretas W., "Techniques Used in Dealing with Certain Problems of College Teaching." University of Illinois Bulletin, June 4, 1929.

[6]Toops, H. A., Ohio College Association Bulletin, No. 63.

1. Let each student in the course hand in 500 true-false questions bearing on the course. He must review the course thoroughly in order to obtain the questions. It is essential that he write the expected answers as well as the questions. The final examination is to be composed of a lengthy selection of the better ones of these.

2. Let each student hand in a lengthy list of questions, which he would like to have answered, which were raised by the book or in the class discussions but were not answered. Use selected questions from these in later mid-term or final examinations. (The "unanswered" questions in the meantime should be considered in class.)

3. Give the final examination at the outset of the course, with the aim of not reteaching that which is already known.

4. Give the final examination one week before the end of the semester; turn in the grades at once, and with the grades out of the way discuss and integrate the course during the last week. The student's fear of failing being removed, he will be willing to discuss the course impartially and freely. Those receiving "incompletes" may spend this last week in overcoming their deficiencies.

5. Let the students tabulate the replies of their classmates, by items, and compare results, the most serious errors being discussed later in class.

6. Let each student hand in a set of correct answers to those questions which he failed on the examination, stating in each case why he was in the wrong, or demonstrating that the instructor who formulated the question was in the wrong.

7. Tell the students to bring all class-notes, textbooks, handbooks, and other material to class for the final examination and let them take the examination under such working conditions as a Ph. D. employs in working up the answer to any problem which he sets for himself.

8. Get the student to hand in, in lieu of a final examination, an outline of the outstanding concepts of the course. These are not to be merely rote memory, recall or information or a reproduction of his class notes but rather a critical analysis of the structure on which the course is built.

9. Set up a standard, say 100, which when attained will give the student a grade of "A." Set up an examination system such that the average student at the end of the first week has so many points toward 100; at the end of the second week so many more, and so on.

10. The student is asked to set his own examination by such questions as the following:

(1) List what you consider to be the five or six most outstanding contributions of psychology to education.

(a) Show in each case how specific educational practice has been affected.

(b) Discuss the nature and the validity of the experimental evidence in each.

(2) What do you consider the most outstanding controversial questions in the field of educational psychology?

(a) State as clearly as you can, the position of different schools in regard to the question.

(b) Indicate the arguments for and against each position, being careful to designate clearly the contributions which have been made through research.

(c) In what specific ways might definite answers to the above problems influence school practice?

11. The student is given a list of twenty-five terms which are of major significance in the course he is taking. He is asked to identify (not define) in such a way as to show the significance of each, using not more than four lines for each term. This measures the ability of the student to place a concept "in its setting."

12. The student is given a problem from a practical schoolroom situation. He is is asked to analyze the situation, indicating the factors involved, explain their significance, and give a suggested solution.

13. Let the student work out a project which he reports to the class in lieu of an examination.

14. In lieu of a final examination, let the student write and present to the class, who quiz him, a term paper dealing with some topic for which he has a felt need and which he has studied intensively.

There is a decided need for more definite objectives in the field of education and educational psychology. This is especially true in the evaluation of student needs, achievements, and performance in classes

in educational measurements. The instructor in the field of educational measurements should practice what he teaches and while the writer is primarily interested in this field, it may be that the following instructional suggestions and devices will prove of some value in other classes. It is essential that the instructor:

a. Set up definite objectives.

b. Give student an opportunity to reach these objectives.

c. Measure his and the student's success or failure.

d. Interpret results of achievement and assign "marks" that are as objective as possible.

What is to be accomplished in a class in educational measurements? What are the teacher objectives? What do the students expect to achieve? What emphasis shall be placed on the acquiring of subject matter? What emphasis shall be placed on student activity, and individual projects? From the instructor's point of view the following objectives are fundamental. These have been compiled by those teaching Educational Measurements in Western State Teachers College:

Objectives for the Course—Introduction to Educational Measurements

1. To acquaint students with the history of educational measurements.

2. To acquaint students with the purpose and function of educational measurements.

3. To acquaint students with the fundamentals, assumptions, and concepts of educational measurements.

4. To furnish students with such statistical tools as are essential to a proper treatment and interpretation of test results.

5. To acquaint students with the various types of tests and scales.

6. To acquaint students with existing tests and scales of achievement and intelligence typical in various grade levels.

7. To instruct students in the methods of giving or scoring tests and of tabulating test results.

8. To acquaint students with the problem of individual difference.

9. To acquaint students with the psychology of school subjects incident to measurement.

10. To instruct students in the various types of uses to which results may be placed.

11. To study the limitations of tests and scales.

12. To study the methods of improving the written examination.

After the goals have been definitely established the next step is to give the student an opportunity to reach them. It is necessary that the student gain early in the course a clear idea of what is to be accomplished. The period of floundering should be cut short by the presentation of a comprehensive outline of the class objectives. Mimeographed weekly assignments instead of daily assignments would set up definite goals and at the same time leave the student free for his own purposing and planning. It is of great importance that the student be given an opportunity to reach not only the instructor's objectives but also the individual goal which he should be encouraged to set up for himself. Several such projects which have been attempted in different classes are listed as follows:

1. Construction of new-type examination to measure knowledge of subject matter in history, geography or art.

2. Construction of timed tests in spelling.

3. Case studies in reading, spelling, handwriting, arithmetic.

4. Studies in time allotment.

5. Attempts to evaluate incidental learning and instruction.

6. Attempts to evaluate and compare results of achievement tests in physical training.

7. Comparing of the different abilities of twins in the tool subjects.

8. Attempts to determine causes of failure.

9. Determining group needs in the tool subjects.

It is true that no great contributions to the science of education have been made through the completion of such projects, but nevertheless the student has been interested in his problem and has, perhaps, acquired knowledge and skill to a greater degree because of this interest.

In order that the student have an opportunity to reach the objectives set up by the instructor the method of procedure

must be considered. Many college instructors feel that subject matter is paramount and that methods of instruction in college classes deserve little or no consideration. Nolan of the University of Illinois in a very recent study has attempted to make a problem or difficulty analysis of the classroom instruction of a number of staff members selected at random from all the colleges of the University of Illinois, and to find out from them the techniques used in solving their instructional problems. The problems were arranged in questionnaire form and under each problem a list of instructional techniques recommended for its solution was set down. This questionnaire was then taken personally to one hundred college instructors, who were asked to check such techniques as they used in the solution of each problem. Eighty of the instructors replied. Two refused to consider the study, saying that there is "nothing to educational methods in college teaching." Nevertheless, it is the writer's conviction that method both from the standpoint of instructor and student must be effective. In the schools of yesterday instruction came before activity and experience, with the emphasis placed on instruction. There has been a decided shift of this emphasis to the following formula:

Planning-Activity-Difficulty-Instruction.

Here instruction is given to meet a well-defined need and not to anticipate situations which may never arise. The teacher is concerned with developing a consciousness of problems and power to attack and solve them. Perhaps it would be well for instructors in teacher-training institutions to place a little less emphasis on the acquiring of subject matter and much more on the development of the student's power to use subject matter. However, there are many who disagree with this statement. Nolan found that eleven of the eighty instructors who responded to his questionnaire concerning college instruction state that "it was no concern of theirs to get students to apply material learned." Nevertheless the writer believes that it is the instructor's function to: (1) present facts as tools; (2) develop skills; (3) aid in organization of facts; (4) direct in problem solving; (5) provide stimulation. It is the student's function to: (1) acquire facts as tools; (2) practice and acquire skills; (3) collect and organize facts; (4) solve problems in the field; and (5) sustain effort.

After goals have been set up and students have been given an opportunity to reach them by means of effective methods; the next step is the appraisal of achievement. From the student's point of view teaching tests covering definite units of subject matter are of marked value. Scores made by an individual student on eight such tests are indicated in Table I.

TABLE I
DECILE SCORES MADE ON EIGHT CHECK TESTS IN EDUCATIONAL MEASUREMENTS

Tests							
A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
6	7	7	8	9	8	9	9

Appraisal of achievement from the instructor's point of view is far more difficult. The writer's purpose briefly stated is: to determine student worth in terms of achievement considering such factors as (1) growth, (2) knowledge, and (3) skill in use of subject matter. In order to determine growth and the amount of subject matter acquired an initial and final test has been constructed. The content of these tests is based on the twelve objectives in educational measurements set up at the beginning of this discussion. Each form consists of fifty items of multiple-choice, sixty items of organization, and fifty items of true-false. In order to evaluate student worth using the measure of subject matter described above, the following terms have been defined:

A. Growth. This is determined by the per cent of gain from the time of the initial test at the beginning of the term to the final test, at the end of the term.

B. Knowledge and Skill. This is the sum total of the general ideas, concepts, and abilities developed in the class by reference reading and individual projects. The

degree of knowledge and skill is determined by the final test at the end of the term.

C. Use of Subject Matter. This is the ability to be conscious of problems in the field, to solve problems in the field, and to actually make use of knowledge and skills which have been acquired. Evaluation is made on the basis of the problem attempted and the projects actually completed. It is evident that this evaluation is purely subjective. However, the writer believes that it is possible to construct a series of tests which would measure the student's ability to solve problems of a practical nature in the educational area covered by the course.

The procedure for evaluation is as follows:

1. Secure intelligence score for each individual in the class.

2. Determine standard deviation.

3. Determine limits of the five point marking scale, i. e.,

A above +1.5 sigma
B from +.5 sigma to +1.5 sigma
C from -.5 sigma to +.5 sigma
D from -1.5 sigma to -.5 sigma
E below -1.5 sigma

4. Determine frequencies of scores falling within these limits.

5. Determine per cent of students in the class who according to the intelligence test should receive A, B, C, D, and E.

6. Rank each student in each of the above factors considering carefully the definitions of each.

7. Using the class summation sheet write the names of individuals in divisions A, B, C, D, and E, considering the per cents determined in step 5.

8. Determining the total score for each student by adding each partial score which in each case is a product of the weighted value times the status value.

9. Rank each student considering his individual score and the per cents determined in step 5.

In order to illustrate how the individual grade of a student would be obtained the following illustration is given. Suppose a student whose initials are P. C. is ranked in group C in per cent of possible gain. The status value is 6 and the weighted value of growth is 3. Hence the score in growth is 3x6 or 18. P. C. is ranked in group D in knowledge of subject matter. The status value is 4 and the weighted value of knowledge of subject matter is 3. Hence the score is 3x4 or 12. The student is ranked in group A in skill in use of subject matter. The status value is 10 and the weighted value is 4. Hence the score is 4x10 or 40. The individuals complete point score would then be: Growth 18, Knowledge of subject matter 12, Skill in use of subject matter 40, or 70. When this individual is ranked with his fellows and the distribution of marks which was determined for this group used as a guide his letter rating would be a B, while if subject matter only had been considered in determining his mark the grade would have been D.

At once the question is raised as to the advantages and disadvantages of this scheme. Surely it is but a crude attempt to consider factors other than subject content in the evaluation of student worth. The following criticisms may be made of the plan.

A. Subjective judgment enters into the evaluation of skill in the use of subjective matter.

B. Degree of validity of initial and final tests is unknown.

C. Device is too cumbersome.

D. It is assumed that there is a high correlation between capacity and achievement.

E. There is no evidence to show that marks based upon this procedure are more reliable than marks based upon the final examination. In fact with this group the correlation between the two is .909 plus or minus .020, or fifty-nine per cent better than a guess.

Summary

The writer has attempted to show (1) the types of tests used by instructors in the field of education, (2) the use made of these tests and (3) his attempt to (a) set definite objective goals, (b) give the student an opportunity to reach them, (c) measure his and their success or failure, (d) interpret results in terms of marks considering other factors than the students ability to acquire subject matter.

TABLE II

CLASS SUMMATION SHEET

Status	Growth Weighted (3)	Knowledge of Subject Matter Weighted (3)	Skill in Use of Subject Matter W (4)	Class Rank Determined from Col. 1, 2, and 3.	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	
				Names	Scores
		V. S.			
A (10)	V. S.	I. L.	P. C.	V. S.	100
8%	I. L.	H. J.	S. A.	H. J.	92
of	H. J.	X. Y.	V. S.	X. Y.	86
Class					
	X. Y.	G. D.	H. J.	I. L.	84
B (8)	G. D.	H. P.	X. Y.	B. T.	80
24 %	H. P.	J. U.	B. T.	S. A.	76
of	J. U.	B. T.	H. H.	H. H.	74
Class	W. H.	R. S.	H. M.	J. U.	72
	B. T.	V. E.	E. T.	P. C.	70
	V. E.	W. H.	E. B.	H. M.	68
	R. S.	G. B.	W. C.	E. T.	68
	H. H.			E. B.	68
				W. C.	68
C (6)	J. J.	H. H.	M. K.	G. D.	66
38%	H. M.	S. A.	R. O.	H. P.	64
of	W. C.	J. J.	F. R.	W. H.	64
Class	G. P.	H. M.	C. C.	F. P.	60
	S. A.	E. B.	O. S.	C. S.	60
	E. T.	E. T.	H. R.	M. H.	60
	M. H.	W. C.	F. P.	T. B.	60
	F. K.	T. B.	C. S.	O. S.	60
	C. S.	M. H.	M. H.	R. S.	56
	T. B.	F. K.	T. B.	V. E.	56
	F. P.	C. S.	G. P.	G. P.	56
	O. S.	F. P.	I. L.	H. R.	54
	E. B.	H. R.	J. U.	J. J.	52
	P. C.	O. S.	M. M.	F. K.	52
			G. C.		
D (4)	F. R.	C. C.	J. J.	M. K.	48
22%	H. R.	F. R.	H. P.	R. O.	48
of	C. C.	P. C.	E. L.	F. R.	48
Class	R. O.	D. C.	D. C.	C. C.	48
	D. C.	R. O.	R. M.	E. L.	40
	M. K.	M. K.	G. M.	D. C.	40
	G. M.	G. M.	F. K.	G. M.	40
	E. L.	E. L.	W. H.		
E (2)	M. M.	M. M.	R. S.	M. M.	36
8%	G. C.	R. M.	V. E.	G. C.	36
of	R. M.	G. C.	G. D.	R. M.	28
Class					

Illustration: Student P. C. was ranked in status group C^1, D^2, and A^3. The individual score and grade would be computed as follows:

Weighted Value		Status Value		
3	x	6	is	18
3	x	4	is	12
4	x	10	is	40
			Total Score	70

This score determines the class rank and also the letter rating of B.

Relationship of Mental Ability and Achievement in Educational Psychology

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The Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability, Higher Form, was given in a class of twenty-five students in educational psychology in connection with the study of the measurement of intelligence. Also, the percentile rankings on the freshman psychological test were secured from the Division of Research and Rho correlation between the two tests was calculated. It was found to be +.78.

Rho correlation was obtained also between the results of the Otis Self-Administering Test and the scores on an objective achievement test consisting of one hundred questions (seventy completion type and thirty true-false) prepared by the instructor. Conditions of both tests were exceptionally favorable as to the elimination of chance of dishonesty, encouraging a favorable attitude toward taking the tests, et cetera. The Rho correlation was found to be +.36.

Freeman in his book, "Mental Tests," reviews quite a number of correlations between school achievement and psychological test scores, and reaches the conclusion that the range is from +.40 to +.60 and that "under very favorable conditions" it may be somewhat above +.50.

The results obtained in this class seem to show a significant degree of correlation, making due allowance for such other factors as industry, attitude, memory, et cetera.

The nature of the subject matter of psychology is such that it probably demands as much mental ability as any other subject. The next step will be to so modify the test as to secure a higher correlation. The psychological test score as a prognostic instrument will increase the extent that the correlation can be increased.

THE STATUS OF GEOGRAPHY IN THE STATE TEACHERS COLLEGES OF THE UNITED STATES

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while others are just as sure that it is a social science. There is a definite tendency on the part of college heads to establish a department of geography that is differentiated from the department of physical science and from the department of social science. In the past administrators have found it necessary to classify geography under some other department in order to minimize the number of department heads employed.

Criteria for Good Teaching

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The standard by which good teaching is determined may depend, to some extent, upon the philosophy and the general aims of education lying back of the teaching process. Viewed from the standpoint of the extreme purposeful activity proponents, a large part of teaching as it is now carried on would be classed as poor. Few teachers have reached the point in the development of modern education that they can accept wholly the principle that Dr. Rugg has set forth in his "Child Centered School." In measuring teaching it is important to understand whether the teacher has accepted fully Dr. Rugg's idea or whether she still holds to a more commonly understood principle of education, that is, the principle that subject matter plays an important part in the child's experience for proper development educationally. Since most teachers at this time probably accept the latter view, or else carry on their procedures in the light of the latter view, this paper will deal with the subject from that standpoint.

The best teaching is done when the teacher causes her aims of education to function definitely in all of her classroom procedures. The teaching program, the lesson plans, and the course of study should show evidence of very definite general and specific aims. These aims serve as guides to the teacher. They give shape and form to her program of work and they serve as a basis for the proper functioning of the subject matter taught and for the activities which make up the child's experiences. Just what the teacher sets up as her aims is important. However, there are any number of statements of the aims of education, many of which may serve her purpose in a very satisfactory way. A committee from the superintendent's department of the N. E. A. brought out a statement of the aims of elementary education in 1926, then another in the Seventh Yearbook, 1929. Clapp, Chase, and Merriman in their book "An Introduction to Education" have formulated a brief, concise statement which in the main conforms to the findings of the above mentioned committees. Acording to these authors the purposes of elementary education are as follows:

1. Training in the rudiments or fundamentals of knowledge.
2. Acquisition of knowledge.
3. Development of social ideals and standards of conduct.
4. Physical training and health education.
5. Training for the proper use of leisure time.

This is only one of the many ways of stating the aims or purposes of elementary education. Dr. Will Durant expressed a slightly different viewpoint when he said, "Education is the technique of transmitting as completely as possible to as many as possible the intellectual, moral, and artistic heritage of mankind." This broad general statement of what education is will serve as a guide to any teacher in setting up her own goals. In fact, to accomplish the five purposes of the writers mentioned above would be, in the main, to carry into effect the broad aim as given by Dr. Durant.

It is not my intention to attempt to determine here what the aims of elementary education should be. It is my intention, however, to emphasize the fact that the teacher should have in mind in all her work of planning lessons and definite units of instruction some well defined aims or purposes of education. Let these aims be what they may. Let them be such as has been set up by some committee or a list that the teacher has set up for herself, some such statements that fit in precisely with her philosophy of education. Suppose the elementary teacher has determined already upon such a set of principles as set forth by Clapp, Chase, and Merriman. With this philosophy in mind the good teacher will go about making her plans, first of all, from the standpoint of training in the rudiments and fundamentals of

knowledge. You will find her giving specific drills on the fundamentals. You will find these drills have a very definite place in her program of instruction. Language, hand-writing, arithmetic, and spelling will all come in for a very definite share of time and emphasis. This arrangement will be evident in the teacher's plan for her year's work and her specific plans for her daily recitation.

In addition to this constant drill in the drill subjects the good teacher will have placed in her program a very definite plan for the acquisition of knowledge on the part of her pupils. Her history, her geography, and her civics will be organized along the lines in which the pupils can participate and in which the pupils find many natural interests. The social sciences lend themselves particularly well to the acquisition of broad general units of knowledge, and at the same time furnish a great store of material to render the pupils work interesting and profitable. Social science is not the only field in which knowledge or a fund of information is necessary. Some facts must be learned in all branches studied in school—music, art, literature, and all the others. The good teacher's plans and her procedures of instruction will indicate definitely to a critical observer that she has built her plans of work with these facts in mind.

The third element that will stand out in the good teacher's plan will be her method of taking care of the development of social ideals and standards of conduct. Has her work been planned to give definite instructions in these fields? In this rapidly growing, highly energized, complex democracy of ours this is perhaps the most important consideration. Has the teacher arranged for definite training in the pupils attitudes toward each other? Do they respect each other's rights? Do they respect the rights of the teachers? Are the pupils courteous to visitors? Are they considerate of the well-being of the whole group? Has the teacher made plans in the progress of work to give instruction in these items relating to attitude and moral ethics? These are some questions that may be asked and when answered in the affirmative indicate that the teacher is measuring up, in a very high degree, to standards of work that can be defended.

The fourth element is one most looked for in a good teacher and one that has grown in importance in the last few years more than any other one, and that is provision for physical and health education in the school. We are sometimes inclined to think that this phase of education should be left to the specialist, the school physician, school nurse, or a highly trained director of physical education. These agencies are indeed very beneficial in any school which can afford supervision in these fields, but in most of our schools these are possibilities only to be dreamed of, and the full weight of the responsibility falls upon the teacher. The good teacher must and will assume this new obligation.

Physical education can be carried on simply by process of drill, properly motivated. Correct posture while standing, while sitting, and while walking, reduced to habit through the law of habit formation is the finest type of physical education. This well planned little group of activities including a number of mass games, which the teacher can easily learn, will greatly assist in health development. Health crusades in which children's teeth are examined, their eyesight tested, weights and measures recorded are valuable activities which are familiar to the average classroom teacher. In addition to these activities in a health program, further evidence of the teacher's professional consciousness will be revealed in the sanitary conditions of her school room. Is her room clean? Is it properly ventilated? Does the light fall properly, as far as the arrangement of the lighting will permit, upon the pupil's desks? Is the temperature well regulated?

One other thing must be considered in the teacher's plans, and that is the training of pupils in the use of leisure time. This matter can be dispensed with, however, very readily. If the child is well trained in the rudiments and fundamentals of knowledge, if he has acquired knowledge all along the way up the level of his age and grade, if he has a fund of information regarding history, civics, and geography, if he has been taught to appreciate art, music and literature, if he has a wholesome group of social ideals and his standard of conduct has been built along the

lines of desirable citizenship, if in his physical training and health education he has learned to enjoy some wholesome sport, his leisure time will take care of itself. He will have avenues of outlet for his recreational needs which will consume a part of his leisure time. This will bring him in contact with friends that will consume another part of his leisure time. He will find enjoyment in art, literature, and music. All together these will fill his leisure time with wholesome and profitable activities which will in turn result in a fine type of achievement in the field of citizenship.

If the teacher's program and all her plans and her procedures from day to day and week to week bear unmistakable evidence that her pupils are being given an opportunity to develop at the maximum rate of speed along these five lines that lead to the ultimate well rounded education, she has met many of the conditions necessary for good teaching.

In addition to evidences of the goals of education as well fixed and functioning facts in the mind of the teacher it is also necessary for her teaching, her planning, and all her procedures to show certain evidences that she is keeping in her mind the general laws by which children learn. If all learning, as we believe, takes place, at least on the lower levels, according to the laws of learning, then the operation of these laws must be considered as one of the measurements of good teaching. Much time has been wasted by teachers who fail to secure a readiness of mind on the part of the pupils before the presentation of the lesson. A teacher may well afford to spend a large part of her teaching period, if necessary, to prepare the children's minds for the reception of the particular facts or activities necessary in the development of a given lesson. She needs to create teaching situations before she begins teaching. She needs to build up what Thorndike calls a "total frame of mind" favorable toward the reception of facts and the development of skills. If the teacher has thirty minutes in which to teach her lesson it is better to spend twenty minutes of that time in creating this favorable "total frame of mind" and ten minutes in teaching, than it is to spend a whole thirty minutes in teaching, when all the activities and procedures are passing over the heads of the pupils.

The operation of the law of exercise must also be in evidence. This is brought out most forcefully in drill lessons. The good teacher will recognize the need of drills and will not be satisfied by simply teaching a lesson, but will devote ample time to drill in order that the proper skills may be developed. There are even certain facts found in the content subjects that require considerable repetition and drill to fix them definitely and permanently in the minds of the pupils. In the best teaching procedures one will always recognize these fundamental facts and will provide exercises enough to develop permanent bonds and produce usable and permanent skills.

The operation of the law of readiness and the law of exercise alone are not sufficient measurements of good teaching. The good teacher provides also for desirable outcomes. Not only should these result in desirability on the part of the teacher, but they should also be acceptable and satisfactory to the pupil. The pupil tends to repeat those experiences that give pleasure and satisfaction and he tends to avoid those that have the opposite effect. Consequently it is very important that the pupil have the feeling of achievement, that satisfactory feeling that comes as a result of something well done. He must have the commendation of his teacher. He must have the approval of his associates when tasks are well done, and he must have tactful and skillful disapproval when he is negligent or when he fails on account of carelessness or indifference. The good teacher will make provisions for the pupil to feel, as often as it is possible, that wholesome experience that one has a result of suitable and approved progress.

As a result of the functioning of the proper aims of education in the teacher's plans and purposes, and the operation of the three general laws, the law of readiness, the law of exercise, and the law of effect, one will find a school with the following unmistakable marks and measurements of good teaching:

1. A happy and contented teacher who enjoys the art of teaching.

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A New Type Test

V. Dewey Annakin, associate professor of social studies in the Indiana State Teachers College, maintains that a student's information about subject matter can be tested in such a way as to determine how well the student is acquainted with the particular subject and at the time contribute to the enjoyment of the hour. While it is necessary for the instructor to know how well his students are learning the details of the subject, there is no reason for not making the process somewhat enjoyable for the student. Profesor Annakin has woven into story form some of the technique of the multiple-choice type of objective test. The test, which is used in the course Introduction to Sociology, Course B (Social Studies 441), is given herewith.

The Test

"Underscore the appropriate words.

"A certain member of the class took the instructor seriously when he suggested that each student make a personal application of the material studied. Upon reading the chapter on Family Organization he found that the only available way to increase the population of the globe is 1. migration, 2. generation, 3. imitation, 4. naturalization. 'Good Gravy', he exclaimed, 'is that so! And here I am twenty-one years old and no prospects of matrimony! I must look around. That's a fine looking girl that sits beside me in English. If I ask her to go to the fraternity dance and she accepts that would be wonderful. If I make love to her that would be 1. marketing, 2. slavery, 3. courtship, 4. inertia. I hate to ask her — she might turn me down—but, I can't expect her to ask me. That would be contrary to the 1. social continuity, 2. cooperation, 3. the mores, 4. social mobility. If she responds properly to my advances, then I will ask her to marry me, and — who knows — we may become engaged. Our 1. betrothal, 2. bereavement, 3. nuptials, will be strictly our own business, but if we had lived in olden times it would have been a public affair. When we are married, since I'll have just one wife and she'll have just one husband, our marriage will be 1. morganatic, 2. exogamic, 3. monogamic, 4. polyandric. But if I marry her and that red-headed girl, who sits on the other side of me, at the same time, it would be called 1. polyandry, 2. bigamy, 3. endogamy, 4. group marriage, and I would be put in jail. But suppose the law allowed perfect freedom in marriage, then if that girl married me and those two sheiks in the front row that would be 1. monogyny, 2. polygyny, 3. exogamy, 4. monandry, 5. polyandry, 6. group marriage. Some folks prefer such freedom but not me. One wife at a time is all I want but she has to meet the requirements. She must be good-looking, sweet tempered, and a good cook. She must, above all, be a native white, Protestant, American, as I am. This last requirement illustrates the principle of 1. endogamy, 2. promiscuity, 3. natural selection, 4. exogamy, while the fact that I am not allowed to marry Cousin Alice illustrates 1. endogamy, 2. sexual selection, 3. dowry, 4. exogamy. But if I marry Cousin Alice in spite of the taboo it would be called 1. progeny, 2. polyandry, 3. incest, 4. promiscuity.

'I'm going to be the big noise in our family. I'm going to handle the money and what I say will be law. You can see I believe in 1. matrilineal, 2. democratic, 3. companionate, 4. patriarchal, 5. matriarchal, type of family. If women ran things in the family the world would go to the dogs and it would be called 1. sorority, 2. matriarchate, 3. patriarchate, 4. anarchy. But perhaps my wife won't like me. In that case she can get a 1. bill of exchange, 2. marriage certificate, 3. divorce. However, if she belongs to a church that holds the 1. philanthropic, 2. sacramentalist, 3. modernist, 4. contractual view of marriage, she will hesitate a long time to leave me. But if her church holds the fundamentalist, 2. sacramentalist, 3. contractual, 4. matriarchal view of marriage, I had better go slowly."

Enrollments in Indiana State Teachers College for the School Year, 1929-1930

Comparisons between the Fall, Winter, and Spring Terms of the school year 1929-30 at the Indiana State Teachers College, have been made from statistical data on file in the office of the registrar.

The total number of students enrolled for each term of the school year 1929-30 was as follows: Fall Term, 1,392; Winter Term, 1,347; and Spring Term, 1,261.

The number of men enrolled in the Fall Term was 518, in the Winter Term, 498, and in the Spring Term, 444. The number of women enrolled in the Fall Term was 874, in the Winter Term, 849, and in the Spring Term, 817.

Of the 1,392 students enrolled in the Fall Term, 1,345 were from Indiana and forty-seven were from out of Indiana. Of the forty-seven out-of-state enrollments, thirty-six were from Illinois, three were from Kentucky, two were from Ohio, and one each was from Arkansas, Georgia, Michigan, New York, West Virginia, and Wisconsin.

In the Winter Term, 1,307 of the students enrolled were from Indiana and forty were from out of the state. Of the forty who came from other states, thirty-five were from Illinois and one each was from Arkansas, Kansas, New York, Ohio, and West Virginia.

The Spring Term enrollment was made up of 1,220 students from the state of Indiana and forty-one from other states. Thirty-four of the out-of-state enrollments were from Illinois, two were from Ohio, and one each was from Kansas, Kentucky, New York, and West Virginia.

The number of students enrolling from Vigo County for each of the three terms was as follows: Fall Term, 634; Winter Term, 634; and Spring Term, 591. Outside of Vigo County the counties from which the largest enrollments came, for the entire school year, were, in descending order, as follows: Clay, Parke, Sullivan, Green, Knox, Lake, Vermillion, Daviess, Marion, Vanderburgh, Putnam, Montgomery, Fountain, and Gibson.

During the three terms students were enrolled from all but fourteen of the counties of the state. Following are the fourteen counties from which no students were enrolled either in the Fall, Winter, or Spring Terms: Adams, Blackford, Fulton, Grant, Hamilton, Huntington, Jay, Jennings, LaGrange, Noble, Porter, Pulaski, Steuben, and Switzerland.

The total enrollment from all other counties besides Vigo was 711 in the Fall term, 673 in the Winter term, and 629 in the Spring Term.

Data concerning the ages of students enrolled in the Indiana State Teachers College for the school year 1929-30 showed that by far the most students were between the ages of 18 and 25, and that relatively small numbers of students below 18 or above 25 were enrolled. The number between the ages of 18 and 25 enrolled in the Fall Term was 1,165, in the Winter Term the same number, and in the Spring Term, 1,110. One hundred thirty-six students below the age of 18 were enrolled in the Fall Term, one hundred in the Winter Term, and sixty-six in the Spring Term. The number above the age of 25 enrolled in the Fall Term was ninety-one, in the Winter Term, eighty-two, and in the Spring term, eighty-five.

In the Fall Term 1,289 of the students enrolled were church members and 103 were non-members; in the Winter Term 1,247 belonged to churches and one hundred did not belong; in the Spring Term the number who were church members was 1,171 and the number of non-church members was ninety.

The number of students working outside of school was 334 in the Fall Term (209 men and 125 women); 309 in the Winter Term (200 men and 109 women); and 363 in the Spring Term (218 men and 145 women).

The data show that most of the students

enrolled in each of the three terms of the school year have had no teaching experience whatever. In the Fall Term the number having no teaching experience was 1,261, in the Winter Term, 1,240, and in the Spring Term, 1,147.

The number having teaching experience in the Fall Term was 168. Forty-one of these had taught one year, eighty-nine had taught from two to five years, and thirty-eight had taught more than five years.

In the Winter Term a total of 155 students had had teaching experience. Forty-three had taught one year, eighty-two had taught from two to five years, and thirty had taught more than five years.

The total number of students with teaching experience in the Spring Term was 161. Forty-seven of them had one year's experience, ninety-one had from two to five years' experience, and twenty-three had more than five years' experience.

Data as to the occupations of the parents of students enrolled were available only for the Fall Term. Of the 1,392 students enrolled for that term 1,243, or all but 149 students, reported as to their parents' occupations. The occupations reported, and the number of parents engaged in them, were as follows: agricultural service, 307; common laborer, ninety-four; commercial service, eighty-eight; professional service, eighty-four; miners, lumber workers, and fishermen, eighty-three; proprietors, eighty-one; transportation service, eighty; building trades, seventy-four; retired, seventy-three; managerial service, seventy-two; public service, fifty-two; miscellaneous, thirty-five; machine trades, thirty-four; unknown, twenty-six; clinical service, twenty-two; personal service, twenty-one; printing trades, eleven; and artisan proprietors, six.

Hold Twelfth International Course for Commercial Expansion

The twelfth International Course for Commercial Expansion will be held at Copenhagen, Denmark, August 4 to 16. The course is sponsored by the International Association for Commercial Education and is held annually in different countries so as to emphasize the economic resources and developments in foreign countries.

The chief purpose of the Congress is to provide young business men and teachers of business subjects an opportunity to learn more about the natural and industrial resources of the countries in which the annual meetings are held. At the Copenhagen meeting the topics discussed will pertain also to social, intellectual, and literary developments. In addition to the lectures which will be delivered in English, French, and German, an important part of the course will be a series of excursions conducted by competent guides that will enable the members of the course to make a personal survey of the economic, cultural, and tourist aspects of Denmark.

The office of the committee that is arranging for the course is located at 44, Fiolstraedo, Copenhagen, Denmark.

CRITERIA FOR GOOD TEACHING

(Continued From Page 185)

2. A happy and contented group of children who enjoy the art of learning.

3. A teacher and a group of children working harmoniously together toward the attainment of the social ideals set up in the teacher's aims of education.

4. A school that is fulfilling the purposes of education by leading children into the rich heritage of mankind where life is, and where life is abundant.

Increased Training For Secondary Teachers Is Next

Standards of teaching, as well as all other professional standards, are being raised constantly. Standards for college teachers have been raised greatly in the last decade. What is the next step— an increased amount of preparation for the secondary teacher? This seems to be true, as evidenced by the statement of Dr. Charles W. Hunt, dean of the college of education of Western Reserve University, in an article in "School Topics," official magazine of the public schools of Cleveland, Ohio. Dr. Hunt stated that, "the University is planning to increase the period of training for high school teachers to five or possisbly six years. Two years of training in education will be added to the regular four years of arts and sciences.

Not A New Idea

"This is not a new idea in this country. The state of California now requires a master's degree for all new teachers in its high schools. The University of Cincinnati has had a fifth year for all teachers for some time. Other colleges in Ohio are now considering a lengthened training period. European school systems have in some cases, notably Germany, a still longer period of education and apprenticeship.

"Everyone is aware that the old-fashioned two years of training given by state normal schools was a stop-gap device. They were offered as an emergency measure for educational training and practice superimposed upon a high school education.

"Requirements in all professions have been raised. It requires six years of preparation for the practice of law, six years for dentistry, and from seven to ten for the practice of medicine.

"The field of educational psychology and philosophy have very much more to offer at present than in the past. The university feels that those who wish to teach in the **upper** levels of educational work should have the benefits of extensive training in these fields. Very naturally this will exclude some from the teaching ranks. In short ,it will be a selective process.

Difficult to Estimate Effect

"It is difficult to estimate, however, the full effect of such a change in advance. If the six-year requirement should place undue importance upon financial circumstances, the additional years of training might not compensate for a loss in intelligence and ability. The present rate of graduation from our colleges makes selection necessary and it should be possible for desirable prospects, rich or poor, to continue to the end of a six-year program.

"The added period will mean that those who seek a professional education, which will involve time and cost, naturally will be those who are approaching a vocation seriously. It will eliminate those who used to make education a stepping stone to other callings. As a matter of fact, education is fast becoming a desirable vocation. The profession of law is being merged into large firms, much of business is being organized in big banks, and the doctor practices his profession in clinics. This calls for a high degree of specialization. Education of the future will be concentrated after some fashion peculiar to itself which will serve the same purpose as mergers in other professions.

"Talent will be more carefully scanned before it is selected. Training for the future will be more definitely planned and executed. The returns and securities in educational life will be much better in the future than in the past. The university is taking an advanced step, but an inevitable one in keeping up with the trend of the present times."

Telephone Has Not Aided Enunciation in "Uhmuricu"

(The following article by Dr. Clarence Stratton, director of English in the Cleveland, Ohio, public schools, first appeared in the May 28, 1930 issue of "School Topics," official publication of the Cleveland public schools.)

A man who would consider himself shamed if he came down town without a necktie (an utterly unnecessary accessory to modern clothes) will, however, pick up the telephone or walk into an office and by his manner of speech proclaim himself a sloven without giving that fact the slightest degree of anxious attention. Gently or forcibly reminded that the speech doth proclaim the man as often as or even more often than the apparel, he will in all likelihood reply, "You understand what I mean, don' cha?" quite oblivious to the belief that speech of men and women in most walks of life is much more than merely making oneself understood. We understand what is meant when an ignorant huckster says, "I ain't got none," and when a cub reporter writes "between you and I," but we judge the person and his position by such reprehensible—though understandable phrases.

Persons who blatantly defend or excuse their careless enunciation are as hazy thinkers as those go-getters who can make no discrimination between "slipping something over" and "putting something over."

It was once believed by persons desirous of hearing better speech in this country that the requirements of the telephone would produce better enunciation. It has always been taught that imitation of better speakers would work for improvement; but as time passes one begins to lose faith in the efficacy of mere imitation. If association with those who know better will transform the ignorant and untrained, why in this city—where there are surely enough models—do so many persons who should have observed and imitated, hold their forks incorrectly?

No; something more direct than imitation is needed to arouse the unwary, the incurious. If this is not a correct statement, why are our ears offended a score of times daily with the slurred enunciation of such words as "little" until the "t" has disappeared and only a slovenly "lill" comes from the lips? And why do these careless speakers suddenly develop a conscience that makes them carefully stick an incorrect "t" in "often?" More offensive are the lost "g's" at the ends of words: "I'm gonna finish this in an hour." It might be a salutary procedure to admonish plainly all persons who twist the pleasant "you" into the harsh "cha:" "Why don'cha lunch with us? I got cha the first time. Don't cha believe 'er; she'll cut cha dead on the avenoo."

That introduces another absolutely inexplicable inconsistency of American speech. The commonest man in the street will always enunciate a perfectly accurate long "u" sound in "beautiful"; yet never by the chances of fate will he be heard to deliver that same correct sound in the riming word "dutiful." He (and she) avoid that long "u" sound as though it were some diabolical plague, and English as she is spoken here is flattened by the long processions of "noos, dooty, Toosday, noospaper, dook, stoo, stoodent, Sooperior Avenoo." As the long "u" sound has encroached on the syllables belonging to "o," this latter sound has been lazily debased almost out of all recognition. How seldom now does one hear the distinct and full-rounded final syllables in words like "window, widow, fellow, sallow, mellow, follow."

If one were disposed to despair, one would wonder what has become of our boasted patriotism in a day when our country is never spoken of correctly, but always as "Uhmuricu."

Around The Reading Table

Reading and Living by Howard C. Hill, laboratory schools, University of Chicago; Rollo L. Lyman, college of education, University of Chicago; and Nelle E. Moore, department of supervision, public schools, Wilmette, Illinois. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1930. Pp. Book I—xvi, 432; Book II—xvi, 463; Book III—xvi, 464.)

The "Reading and Living" series for the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades, executed by two University of Chicago professors and a supervisor in the Wilmette system, has for its objective "a more effective life for every boy and girl." In carrying out this aim, all possible means have been used to build attractive, interesting, and effective books. In order to emphasize most clearly the fact that happiness depends largely upon one's ability to adjust oneself to human associations, and to impress the relation of literature to the solution of attendant problems the material has been grouped according to seven major themes: adventure, stability, helpfulness, happiness, security, heroism, and duty. The volumes, varying in length from 432 to 464 pages, contain a wealth of charming material: some of the old, but much more of the new (by well-known authors) and of such range of appeal as surely to tempt any child.

The series is designed to give systematic training in speed, comprehension, and appreciation (of social and esthetic values, nature, and humor). In pursuance of these aims, especially well-done features are the suggestions for correlated reading for class and individual, study guides, tests, and projects (varied and stimulating). These books seem to have all the merits of the best "how-to-study" readers, but also use material of the highest type.

The format is very attractive: bright, artistic cover; colored frontispiece; profuse and excellent illustration; and superior paper and print.

—Mary McBeth
Assistant Professor of English.

Mass Education in England by J. H. Garrett, M. D., of the Middle Temple, barrister-at-law. (London: Ed. J. Burrow and Company. 1928. Pp. 183.)

This book by an experienced school medical officer consists of a critical examination of the problem and possibility of mass education in England with special reference to the determining influence of the varying mental quality of the school population. It includes a valuable chapter on the history of public education in England; one on the object of public education; and a series of chapters presenting rather extensive data on the varying possibility of education due to variations in educability of children. These data pertain to age-grade status, character and results of school examinations, qualifications of teachers, et cetera. The author reaches the conclusion that equal education for all children, irrespective of varying ability and the nature of their after employments, is wrong in theory and wasteful of teaching effort and public money. For the less able half of the school population he advocates an education consisting mainly of character education and a knowledge of native language, arithmetic, and possibly a few other subjects. In a closing chapter on "Aphorisms Concerning Mass Education," he presents a series of very challenging propositions that are largely in opposition to the whole trend of expansion and enrichment of public school education. Though the history of public education in England has been much different from that in the United States and furthermore, in spite of the fact that at present school funds in England are probably much more curtailed than in any part of the United States, nevertheless, this book should prove to be useful grist for the mill of educational controversy in this country.

—E. L. Welborn
Professor of Education.

Track Athletics and Cross Country by Lloyd W. Olds, associate professor of physical education and director of track athletics and cross country, Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti. (New York: A. S. Barnes and Company. 1930. Pp. xi, 154.)

Many books have been published on the teaching of skills in athletic sports, all of them by necessity dealing with the same general fundamentals, but each one presenting them differently. So it is a pleasure to review Mr. Old's book on "Track And Cross Country" which presents the old material in a new, helpful, and interesting manner.

The subject matter in this book is arranged in the sequence that a young and inexperienced coach will have need for it. The explanation of each skill is very clear, concise, and not too lengthy. The steps in the development of each event come in chronological order, accompanied by illustrations. When you have finished any one event you have both a word and a picture description of just how the event is executed.

There are several outstanding points of this book which make it more helpful than the average book on track work. They are:

1. Chronological sequence of subject matter.
2. How to conduct a track meet.
3. A brief summary of rules for each event.
4. Suggestions as to generalship for each event.
5. Weekly schedules.
6. Common faults to be found in execution of each event.
7. Time schedule as an aid in teaching men to run track events.
8. Illustrations showing different positions in the execution of an event.

All of these, especially the ones numbered 5, 7, and 8, are very helpful to the young coach.

The last chapter on "Physiological Effect of Cross Country" is a very timely one because we should look more to the health of our athletes. Prevention is far better than cure is the underlying thought of the chapter.

—D. A. Glascock
Assistant Director of Physical Education for Men.

Specimen Objective Examinations by G. M. Ruch, professor of education, University of California, Berkeley, and G. A. Rice, associate professor of education, University of California, Berkeley. (Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company. 1930. Pp. vi, 324.)

This book is a prize collection of thirty-six model objective examinations. A nation wide contest conducted by the authors brought a total of 375 examinations from teachers in thirty-six states.

The thirty-six examinations selected by judges expert in the testing field represent the best effort of teachers and students of education. A study of the items in the thirty-six best examinations shows that seventeen different types of items were used but the most popular types in the order named are: completion, true-false, multiple-choice, and matching. The first two named constituted more than half of all the items.

The book represents a trend toward the construction of new-type tests by the teacher himself rather than a dependence entirely upon standardized tests. No teacher should be satisfied with the use of the latter alone. The emphasis upon the objective type test of the teacher's own make shows a further step toward more scientific teaching and testing.

Every high school teacher who wishes to do superior work would find the two companion volumes, "The Objective or New Type Examination" and "Specimen Objective Examinations" very helpful.

—E. L. Abell
Professor of Education.

The City School Board Member and His Task by Edgar Mendenhall, director of research, Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg. (Pittsburg, Kansas: The College Inn Bookstore. 1929. Pp. ix, 104.)

This contribution to the literature of public school administration is in the form of a manual. It contains in outline form a statement of the best

administrative practices with reasons with which a member of a city school board should be familiar. The manual would be useful for ready reference to school superintendents and students of public school administration, also. It is not suitable for text purposes in classes in school administration, however, because of its outline form.

The outline is built around eighty-eight questions, with their answers, which school board members may meet. The questions are grouped into eight major divisions which are as follows: general considerations, the board member and the superintendent, the board member and the teachers, the board member and the community, school board meetings and rules, the building program, school finance, and a checking list of fifty-eight desirable traits and fifty-eight undesirable traits of a city school board member.

Almost half of the volume is devoted to an appendix, which consists in the main of reprints of the writings of others on topics which concern school board members. Also, in the appendix, is a list of five agencies distributing school record forms and a list of some forty selected references.

—J. R. Shannon
Associate Professor of Education.

Shall I Go to College?, a self-rating scale, by Lonzo Jones. (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company.)

This is a self-rating scale for high school graduates to help them decide whether or not to go to college. The value of such a scale can hardly be questioned if high school graduates are to be given any assistance in planning for their future.

The items of the scale are: love of learning, rank in graduating class, other "learned activities," memory, reasoning ability, reading skill, reading rate, family backing, self-direction, and ability to pay the price. Students are given a full explanation of the meaning of the items and then asked to check on the scale to show whether they belong in the lowest ten per cent, the next twenty per cent, the middle forty per cent, the next twenty per cent, or the top ten per cent. A scale is also provided for rating by one teacher and by the principal.

As a means of getting high school graduates to realize what it means to go to college, and of getting them to analyze themselves and to think seriously on the matter, this scale should prove very helpful. It shows the advantages of a careful estimate over a blind choice.

—E. L. Abell
Professor of Education.

Powers Diagnostic Latin Test. (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company.)

The purpose of this test is to measure the extent to which pupils in first-year Latin have mastered the vocabulary, word forms, and translation skills necessary for a good foundation in the subject.

The test has seven parts and covers the fundamentals in first-year Latin very thoroughly. The class record sheet is so arranged that a complete diagnosis of the individual and the class is available for use in teaching. Norms are given for each part of the test as well as the total. The reliability of the two forms by parts is .80; .90. The test is carefully constructed and well printed.

—E. L. Abell
Professor of Education.

Diagnostic Reading Tests by S. L. and L. C. Pressey. (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company.)

In these Pressey tests we have instruments for measuring speed of reading comprehendingly, vocabulary and paragraph meaning. The speed test is really a test of reading with understanding and not merely a test of skimming as so many of the speed tests are.

The vocabulary tests are of the multiple-choice type and use words selected from the Thorndike Word Book. The test is so arranged that by simply adding two zeros to the pupil's score the approximate size of his reading vocabulary is obtained.

The paragraph meaning test is of the usual type except in the manner of the pupil's response. The key sentence or phrase in the paragraph is underlined.

—E. L. Abell
Professor of Education.

Summer Work in Public Schools by Charles W. Odell, assistant director of educational research, University of Illinois. University of Illinois Bulletin. (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois. 1930. Pp. 42.)

This study may be of interest to Hoosiers because the first school city in recent times to maintain a twelve-months school was Bluffton, Indiana, under the superintendency of William A. Wirt, now of Gary. Also, E. B. Clogston, of Garfield High School, Terre Haute, is given a prominent place through a review of his study of the results of the summer school in his institution on the physical welfare of students and teachers. Dr. J. W. Jones of the Indiana State Teachers College is referred to because of his study of summer high schools in the North Central States.

After an introductory chapter, Dr. Odell presents in one chapter a brief history of the summer-school movement, in another a report of a questionnaire study of summer schools in Illinois, in another the outcomes of summer work, and in another summaries and conclusions.

Well selected bibliographical material helps to make this pamphlet the best treatise to date on the subject.

—J. R. Shannon
Associate Professor of Education.

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